DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 391 304 EC 304 553

AUTHOR	Rutherford, Robert B., Jr.; And Others
TITLE	Effective Strategies for Teaching Appropriate Behaviors to Children with Emotional/Behavioral Disorders. From the Mini-Library Series on Emotional/Behavioral Disorders.
INSTITUTION	Council for Children with Behavioral Disorders.
REPORT NO	ISBN-0-86586-268-0
PUB DATE	96
NOTE	47p.; For other related documents in this series, see EC 304 550-556.
AVAILABLE FROM	Council for Children with Behavioral Disorders, 1920 Association Dr., Reston, VA 22091-1589 (Stock No. D5133 $11.40, nonmembers, $8 members; $72 set, nonmembers, $50.40 set, members).
PUB TYPE	Guides - Non-Classroom Use (055)
EDRS PRICE	MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS	Anger; *Behavior Change; *Behavior Disorders; Behavior Modification; Classroom Environment; Classroom Techniques; Cooperative Learning; *Curriculum Development; Elementary Secondary Education; *Emotional Disturbances; Interpersonal Competence; Self Control; Self Management; *Social Behavior; Teaching Methods

ABSTRACT -

This monograph is intended to help special educators design social behavior curricula that teach alternative or replacement behaviors for negative behaviors to students with emotional/behavior disorders (E/BD). Each section contains a brief description of a behavior replacement technique, an explanation of why a particular technique works, conditions or circumstances influencing the effectiveness of the technique, and guidelines for implementing the technique. A chapter is given to each of the following sets of techniques: (1) social skills training; (2) cooperative learning; (3) anger management; and (4) self-control strategies. (Contains 51 references.) (DB)

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From the Mini-Library Series on
Emotional/Behavioral Disorders

Effective Strategies for Teaching Appropriate Behaviors to Children With Emotional/ Behavioral Disorders

Robert B. Rutherford, Jr.
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Sarup R. Mathur
Arizona State University

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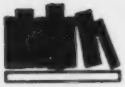

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About the Council for Children with Behavioral Disorders

CCBD is an international professional organization committed to promoting and facilitating the education and general welfare of children/youth with behavioral and emotional disorders. CCBD, whose members include educators, parents, mental health personnel, and a variety of other professionals, actively pursues quality educational services and program alternatives for persons with behavioral disorders, advocates for the needs of such children and youth, emphasizes research and professional growth as vehicles for better understanding behavioral disorders, and provides professional support for persons who are involved with and serve children and youth with behavioral disorders.

In advocating for the professionals in the field of behavioral disorders, CCBD (a division of The Council for Exceptional Children) endorses the Standards for Professional Practice and Code of Ethics adopted by the Delegate Assembly of The Council for Exceptional Children in 1983.

About This Monograph

Stock No. D5133, ISBN 0-86586-268-0

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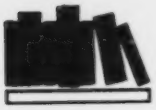
Printed in the United States of America
10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2



About the Mini-Library Series on Emotional/Behavioral Disorders

Foreword

Today, professionals are struggling to discover ways to deal successfully with a heterogeneous population of students, some of whom are especially difficult to manage and instruct. No other group of youngsters poses a greater challenge than those variously labelled "seriously emotionally disturbed," "behaviorally disordered," or "emotionally/behaviorally disordered." These children and youth manifest a combination of social, academic, and behavior problems that require not only powerful individual strategies but also effective program options. Fortunately, there is a growing body of knowledge regarding what constitutes quality practices for students with emotional/behavioral disorders (E/BD).

This mini-library series targets the most crucial issues and concerns regarding these children and youth. It covers the needs of students of various ages who are being served in different programs and settings and who demand diverse policy considerations. The mini-library derives from the 1995 international conference sponsored by the Council for Children with Behavioral Disorders. The seven monographs and their authors are

- *Best Practices for Managing the Behavior of Adolescents with Emotional/Behavioral Disorders Within the School Environment*
  Beverley H. Johns, Eleanor C. Guetzloe, Mitchell Yell, Brenda Scheuermann, Jo Webber, Valerie G. Carr, and Carl R. Smith
- *Developing a System of Care: Interagency Collaboration for Students with Emotional/Behavioral Disorders*
  Russell J. Skiba, Lewis Polsgrove, and Karen Nasstrom
- *Early Intervention for Young Children At Risk for Emotional/Behavioral Disorders: Implications for Policy and Practice*
  Wesley Brown, Maureen A. Conroy, James J. Fox, Joseph Wehby, Carol Davis, and Mary McEvoy
- *Effective Strategies for Teaching Appropriate Behaviors to Children With Emotional/Behavioral Disorders*
  Robert B. Rutherford, Jr., Mary M. Quinn, and Sarup R. Mathur

- *Planning and Implementing Effective Programs for School-Aged Children and Youth with Emotional/Behavioral Disorders Within Inclusive Schools*
  Howard S. Muscott, Daniel P. Morgan, and Nancy B. Meadows
- *Teacher-Mediated Behavior Management Strategies for Children With Emotional/Behavioral Disorders*
  Sarup R. Mathur, Mary M. Quinn, Robert B. Rutherford, Jr.
- *Types of Youth Aggression and Violence and Implications for Prevention and Treatment*
  Richard Van Acker

As editors, we strove to bring together information with practical value to the teachers, administrators, and other professionals who must respond to the challenges posed by children and youth with E/BD. We hope this mini-library series will contribute to your success and the success of the students with whom you work.

Lyndal M. Bullock
University of North Texas

Robert A. Gable
Old Dominion University

Series Editors

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Introduction

Many students with emotional/behavioral disorders (E/BD) exhibit negative classroom behaviors simply because they have never been taught how to use prosocial skills to build positive relationships with their peers and their teachers. Therefore, to be most effective, special education curricula must focus on social behavioral goals as well as academic goals.

The purpose of this monograph is to help special educators design social behavior curricula that teach alternative or replacement behaviors for the negative ones. The techniques discussed include *social skills training, cooperative learning, anger management,* and development of *self-control.* These skills can empower students by teaching them how to effectively begin to take control of and responsibility for their behaviors.

Each section of the monograph contains a brief description of a behavior replacement technique, an explanation of why a particular technique works, conditions or circumstances influencing the effectiveness of the technique, and guidelines for implementing the technique.

Replacing unacceptable behaviors with prosocial behaviors is often a slow process. It will likely take time for students with E/BD to begin to trust those in their environment enough to use new prosocial skills. With persistence and patience, students can begin to form positive social relationships and see the benefits of using prosocial skills. When this occurs, negative classroom behaviors and discipline problems will be reduced.

Social Skills Training

Description

Social skills refer to situation-specific, learned behaviors that contribute to an individual's overall functioning in society. According to Kelly (1982), social skills are identifiable, learned prosocial behaviors that people use in interpersonal situations to obtain and maintain reinforcement from other people. Effective use of social skills enhances the likelihood of interpersonal experiences providing personal and social satisfaction. Students who have fully developed prosocial repertoires demonstrate higher rates of positive social behaviors, effective communication skills, and problem-solving skills and hold an overall positive self-concept.

Gresham (1986) identified three ways to define social skills: peer acceptance, behavioral skills, and social validity. According to the peer acceptance definition, students accepted by peers in school or other social settings are considered socially skilled. In the behavioral definition, social skills are viewed as situation-specific responses that increase the likelihood of positive reinforcement from others in social situations. According to the social validity definition, social skills are those behaviors that predict important social outcomes for students. Effective use of social skills contributes to peer acceptance, social adjustment, and positive self-concept of students. Each of these definitions emphasizes different aspects of social competence. Social competence comprises a multitude of social skills that enhance an individual's overall social functioning.

Social skills training is an instructional procedure that focuses on the direct teaching of social skills through modeling, practice, feedback, and self-control (Rutherford, Chipman, DiGangi, & Anderson, 1992). This procedure is based upon the assumption that direct teaching of acceptable prosocial behaviors forms the basis for developing students' social competence. A socially competent student is able to (a) recruit support networks and friendships; (b) meet the demands of teachers who control classrooms and peers who control playgrounds; and (c) adapt to changing and difficult conditions in the social environment (Walker, Colvin, & Ramsey, 1995).

Why Social Skills Training Works

As a general rule, all students with emotional/behavioral disorders (E/BD) benefit from effective social skills instruction. Reviews of the intervention literature related to developing social competence have demonstrated the effectiveness of social skills training approaches in promoting specific social skills of students with E/BD (Mathur & Rutherford, 1989; Zaragoza, Vaughn, & McIntosh, 1991).

Many students with E/BD demonstrate a lack of socially acceptable behaviors. Lack of appropriate social skills often leads to social rejection by peers and adults, poor social adjustment, and low self-concept. Some of these students engage in inappropriate or negative behaviors to gain peer and adult attention. Too often these students fail to develop a prosocial repertoire that facilitates establishing positive peer relationships, dealing effectively with authority figures, and enhancing positive self-concept.

Social skills training enhances the likelihood of the social acceptance of students with E/BD in inclusive school settings. Effective use of social skills contributes to students' independent functioning and acceptance by peers and adults. Many students who have failed to learn certain social behaviors, or fail to demonstrate acceptable levels of these behaviors, are in need of social skills training. Students who receive systematic instruction in social skills are likely to increase desired social behaviors in multiple social settings.

In addition, social skills training enhances students' understanding of the contextual cues, demands, and expectations of their social environment. They learn how to read social cues and how to appropriately respond to those cues. In social skills training, students are provided with repeated practice and social reinforcement for appropriate social participation. Research indicates that early acquisition of social skills may prevent behavior problems in children and youth who are at risk for these problems (Walker et al., 1995).

Conditions Influencing the Effectiveness of Social Skills Training

Although the overall effectiveness of social skills instruction with students with E/BD is well established (Zaragoza et al., 1991), there are several conditions that may limit the effectiveness of this procedure.

Social Validity of Target Behaviors

Too often teachers are not certain about the social validity of target skills. It is imperative that only those social skills meaningful for the student be selected for social skills training. For example, simply focusing on such social behaviors as smiling or nodding during conversations has limited value for most students. Teachers should have a clear idea about the purpose of social skills training, the skills that need to be taught to the target student(s), and the expected outcomes of the training (Walker et al., 1995).

Characteristics of Students

The effectiveness of social skills interventions also depends upon whether students with E/BD exhibit externalizing or internalizing behaviors (Quay, 1986). Students who demonstrate externalizing problem behaviors, such as coercing or intimidating others, often lack the social skills of negotiating with others, dealing with conflict situations, and using problem-solving strategies effectively. Students with internalizing problem behaviors typically display anxiety or withdrawal in social situations. These students often need to be taught effective communication and social interaction skills.

Teachers should be aware of whether students with E/BD exhibit skill deficits or performance deficits (Gresham, 1986). Students who "can't" perform the social skill because they lack the necessary prerequisite skills require direct teaching of those skills. Students exhibiting performance deficits usually have the necessary social skills in their repertoire but choose not to perform these skills. Students who "won't" perform the necessary social behaviors need an incentive-based approach to teaching social skills (Rutherford et al., 1992).

Instructional Factors

Instructional factors such as the type of social skills curricula, the qualifications of the social skills teacher, and the format of teaching influence the effectiveness of social skills training. Numerous social skills curricula are available to teachers of students with E/BD (Quinn, Mathur, & Rutherford, 1995). Teachers need to adapt these social skills curricula to the specific needs and characteristics of their students. In addition, the success of social skills training depends upon the teacher's instructional abilities. Does the teacher use effective teaching procedures during social skills instruction? Can the teacher model specific

social skills in an effective manner? How effective is the teacher in conducting role-plays and providing social reinforcement to students?

Finally, the effectiveness of social skills training is influenced by the training format. Before they begin teaching social skills, teachers should decide on the size and composition of the social skills training group, the setting where training takes place, the sequence in which the skills will be taught, and the total number of social skills lessons.

Guidelines for Teaching Social Skills

The effectiveness of social skills instruction depends upon the use of systematic training procedures. Rutherford et al. (1992) suggest the following guidelines for teaching social skills:

Identify Students

Identify the students who exhibit social skills deficits. Walker et al. (1995) provide several methods for identifying students at risk for antisocial behavioral disorders: teacher rankings, teacher ratings, sociometric techniques, and direct observation. They recommend a combination of either teacher rankings and ratings of all their students or teacher nominations and ratings of specific students for the purpose of identifying students who may benefit from social skills training. Sociometrics involves peer nominations of students for possible social skills training. Direct observations of classroom and playground behavior should also be recorded.

After identifying students who need social skills instruction, determine if they demonstrate a skill deficit or a performance deficit (Gresham, 1986). If the student demonstrates specific social skills deficits (the student "can't"), then the emphasis is on teaching those new skills. On the other hand, if the student displays performance deficits (the student "won't"), then an incentive-based approach to teaching social skills should be used. Provide the latter student with a clear set of rules, expectations, and consequences both for using and not using prosocial skills. The student should be aware of the consequences for both appropriate and inappropriate social behaviors.

Identify/Define the Target Skill

After identifying the target students, identify those prosocial behaviors that will best replace their skill or performance deficits. Rutherford et al. (1992) suggest that students should be involved in the process of

identifying social behaviors. Heightening student awareness about the steps and strategies necessary to develop the target social skill enhances the student's skill acquisition. During this phase, students are taught to specify the steps involved in performing the target skill. The steps are presented in a simple and easy-to-follow manner. It is important that the number of steps to the target social skill be limited so that it is reasonably attainable by the student. Students should be given sufficient practice sessions to learn the steps and strategies.

Model the Target Skill

After identifying the target social skill, model the skill. Direct the student to observe peer models who are reinforced for performing the target social skill. Modeling serves two functions: First, it enables the student to directly observe the actual performance of the target social skills. The student becomes aware of the steps and strategies necessary to perform the skill. Second, it develops an expectancy in the target student for reinforcement. By observing peer models being reinforced for appropriate performance of the target social skill, the student learns the connection between social skills performance and reinforcement. When the target student observes a modeled social skill and sees it being reinforced in others, he or she is more likely to imitate that skill.

Two types of modeling are available in social skills training: live modeling and symbolic modeling (Elliott & Gresham, 1993). In live modeling, students observe teachers or peers model social behaviors. Sometimes it may be necessary for the teacher to model the behavior before using peer models. In symbolic modeling, students can watch videotaped performances of the social skill to learn that particular social skill.

Rutherford et al. (1992) suggest the following steps for effective modeling of social skills:

1. Specify exactly which prosocial behavior will be taught by modeling.
2. Be sure that the target student is developmentally and cognitively able to imitate the modeled behavior.
3. Be sure the modeled behavior is simplified.
4. Be sure models have high status with the target student.
5. Use a variety of students as models.
6. Be sure that the target student is attending to the modeled behavior.
7. Be sure the desired behavior is clearly and consistently modeled.

8. Be sure both the model and the target student are reinforced for performing the desired prosocial behavior.

Provide Role-Plays

The purpose of role-playing is to provide students with sufficient practice of the target social skill. Goldstein (1988) suggests that role-plays should be based upon the current needs of the student. If role-play situations have little relevance in the student's current life, they have limited value for the students. Role-play provides the student with a safe environment for practicing the steps and strategies necessary to develop target social skills. Present a variety of role-play situations to allow the student to use the same steps and strategies in different social situations.

Provide Feedback/Reinforcement

Students should be provided with corrective feedback following each role-play. Provide informative feedback to students about their specific social skill performance. Avoid negative statements while giving feedback. After they receive corrective feedback, ask the student to repeat the steps of the skill. Teachers may videotape the entire role-play and provide students an opportunity to observe their own social behaviors.

Program for Generalization

Systematically program for generalization of social skills. Students may not be able to automatically generalize their newly learned social skills to other settings, people, or behaviors. Use techniques that facilitate generalization of social skills in different settings. A strategy known as *opportunity teaching* is recommended for promoting generalization of social skills in natural settings, such as hallways, the cafeteria, regular classrooms, and playgrounds. This technique involves cuing or prompting students who have missed an opportunity to use the social skill in the nontraining or natural environment. Students are provided with corrective feedback when they apply skills incorrectly and praised for appropriate demonstrations of these skills. Opportunities are provided for coaching students who engage in inappropriate behaviors where alternative prosocial behaviors would have been a better choice (Walker et al., 1995).

Provide students with the rules, strategies, or organizing principles that enhance transfer of social skills from one setting to another. Use multiple peers during training sessions to enhance transfer of skills from

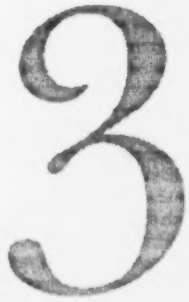
training settings to generalization settings. Encourage students to generalize learned social skills in multiple settings. Mathur and Rutherford (1994), in their study of the effectiveness of social skills instruction with incarcerated female adolescents, incorporated four strategies into social skills instruction to promote transfer of social skills from a training setting (classroom) to a generalization setting (lunchroom). The strategies included asking to generalize, cognitive mediation, programming common stimuli, and using multiple peers. Students practiced the social skills during training sessions and were asked to apply those skills during lunchtime.

Before going to the lunchroom, students were given a cue card that served as a mediational strategy to promote the generalization of skills from one setting to another. Although the classroom and lunchroom settings were dissimilar in terms of the number of students and staff, activities requested of students, and reinforcement contingencies, peers who received social skills instruction in the training setting sat with target students and served as common stimuli in the lunchroom. The commonality of trained peers was incorporated to provide some similarity across the settings which promotes transfer. Students also sat with different untrained peers every day during lunchtime. Sitting with multiple peers facilitated generalization of the learned social skills across untrained peers. Results of the study indicated that social skills generalization was enhanced by incorporating these strategies.

Summary

Students with E/BD often exhibit a limited social skills repertoire. Social skills training is essential for promoting those skills that contribute to the social competence of these students. The success of social skills training depends upon the social validity of target behaviors, the characteristics of the target student(s), and the instructional factors involved in the teaching of social skills. Effective educational programming should include social skills instruction as an essential component of the curriculum for students with emotional/behavior problems.

Cooperative Learning



Description

The philosophy of cooperative learning is defined as "the instructional use of small groups so that students work together to maximize their own and each other's learning" (Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec, 1993, p. 6). While this is an accurate description of cooperative learning, it is simplistic enough to mislead many teachers into merely rearranging their classrooms by putting students in small groups and expecting miracles. As with most "miracles," much more effort is required. True cooperative learning activities focus on maximizing the learning of each student in the group, not just completing tasks as a group (Stahl, 1994a, 1994b, 1995).

Cooperative learning splits a class of students into small, 3-to-5-member teams. Team membership is carefully planned by the teacher so that each member has an equal chance of accomplishing the learning goals. In addition to academic goals, lessons include directly teaching the specific prosocial skills necessary to work cooperatively within small groups. Students practice these skills and work cooperatively in their teams until each member has learned the material and completed the assignments. Each student is then individually tested and the teams are rewarded as one unit when each individual member shows mastery according to some predetermined criteria. This mutual benefit of the group reward further binds the team through a common fate.

Cooperative learning philosophy has been translated into numerous strategies and structures. (For more detail on particular strategies and structures, see Davidson, 1990; Stahl 1994a, 1995, in press.) Research has shown that certain common conditions or elements are necessary for effective cooperative learning (Slavin, 1992; VanSickle, 1992). These elements are outlined and their implementation explained in the following paragraphs.

Why Cooperative Learning Works

Patterson has spent over two decades studying antisocial children and their families. He and his colleagues believe that many of the aversive behaviors manifested by antisocial children are merely attempts to alter their social environment (Patterson, 1986; Patterson, Reid, & Dishion, 1992). These researchers have concluded that a child with antisocial behaviors enters school unequipped with the necessary prosocial skills to develop healthy peer and adult relationships. These children deal with the teacher and other students in the only way they know how—through the use of aversive behaviors.

This pattern of antisocial behavior makes it extremely difficult for children to learn the basic academic skills necessary to function and succeed in the school setting. These children begin to sense that their teachers and peers do not like them and that they are outsiders within their own classrooms. If this process is allowed to continue, the child who does not feel a sense of belonging within the classroom will begin to seek out the company of others who are also rejected by their family, peers, or teachers. These children often form deviant peer groups that are characterized by negative attitudes toward adult authority and school.

One possible way to break this chain of development is to directly intervene by teaching the student with emotional/behavioral disorders (E/BD) to master prosocial skills and develop a sense of belonging and acceptance within the classroom. If these students feel accepted by their normal peers, they may be less inclined to search out and join deviant peer groups.

Cooperative learning has been used to promote both academic achievement skills (Armstrong, Johnson, & Balow, 1981; Johnson, & Johnson, 1982; Johnson, Maruyama, Johnson, Nelson, & Skon, 1981; Madden, & Slavin, 1983; Slavin, Leavey, & Madden, 1984; Slavin, Stevens, & Madden, 1988; Smith, Johnson, & Johnson, 1982) and prosocial attitudes and feelings (Armstrong et al., 1981; Johnson & Johnson, 1982; Johnson, Johnson, Scott, & Ramolae, 1985; Madden, & Slavin, 1983; Smith et al., 1982). Studies reveal that students in heterogeneous cooperative learning groups were more accepting of members with disabilities who were included in their groups (Armstrong et al., 1981; Madden & Slavin, 1983; Smith et al., 1982). Johnson and Johnson (1982) found that students with severe learning and behavioral problems who were included in cooperative learning groups had more student interactions during instruction, formed more interpersonal relationships with the other students in their groups, and had higher levels of academic achieve-

ment than did the control students who were not in cooperative learning groups.

Cooperative learning can effectively be used to foster a sense of belonging or community within the classroom. Community is defined as

> An inherently cooperative, cohesive, and self-reflective group entity where everyone feels that he or she belongs and whose members work on a regular, face-to-face basis toward achieving common goals while respecting a variety of perspectives, values, and life styles. (Graves, 1994, p. 286)

Once students learn the necessary skills to work together, they can be more effective and productive members of groups. Cooperative learning communities enable students to perceive that they belong and have a unique contribution to make for the success of the group. Conversely, these communities also show students that those who are different from them also belong and have unique contributions to make to the group.

Graves (1994) suggests several stages that effective cooperative learning communities must go through as they develop. During the first stage, students need time and activities designed to get everyone within a group acquainted. Students must begin to see each member as someone who is special and has something important to offer to the group. The groups give students a "home" within the classroom. Among other activities that can be implemented to facilitate this stage, Graves (1994) suggests allowing the team to sit together at the beginning and the end of each day, share their personal experiences, and engage in journal writing activities together. Kagan (1992) offers several activities specifically designed to facilitate information sharing including conducting structured interviews with each other and playing team games.

The second stage of community building involves having teams work together to accomplish a common goal (Graves, 1994). Teams should begin to set goals to make themselves more effective at working together. Kagan (1992) calls this team building and offers activities designed to accomplish this goal. These activities include "getting acquainted, team identity, mutual support, valuing differences, and developing synergy" (p. 82).

After teams are well established, members learn and practice the skills that make them more productive. Some of the necessary skills are conflict management, listening, and problem solving. Students are provided with the skills to solve their own problems in socially acceptable

ways. Students must learn that solving group conflicts will make the group stronger.

At this point, the group branches out to help nongroup peers. Students are encouraged to share what they have learned with others or develop units of learning that can be used by other students. This sharing links the small cooperative learning group with larger groups within the classroom, school, or community.

Although not a cooperative learning activity, the final stage of group development is learning to say good-bye (Graves, 1994). Students are encouraged to reflect on how group members have helped them to grow. They can be encouraged to stay in contact with each other through notes or reunions. Johnson et al. (1993) carry this community-building process one step further and recommend the formation of cooperative academic-focused base groups. These are heterogeneous groups whose membership is stable over an extended period of time, perhaps the child's entire school career. These groups meet daily while in elementary school and biweekly in secondary schools. Members of these groups help each other keep up academically and provide a peer-support group with which to share problems.

Conditions Influencing the Effectiveness of Cooperative Learning

Johnson et al. (1993) propose five elements that are essential if cooperative learning is to take place. These elements are positive interdependence, individual and group accountability, promotion of interaction by arranging students so they face each other, interpersonal and small-group social skills, and group processing.

For these authors, the most important of the five is the element of *positive interdependence*. Positive interdependence is present only when the accountability and reward systems lead group members to feel their fates are linked together and they can succeed when, and only when, every group member succeeds at the assigned task. Every person's effort to accomplish the task not only effects him or herself but every other member of the group as well.

The second element, *individual and group accountability*, requires that the performance of each individual is assessed and the group as a whole is held directly accountable for the success, encouragement, or reteaching of each member within the group. Slavin (1983), in a review of research

on cooperative learning techniques, found that postgroup individual accountability or rewarding the group based on the performance of the individual members of the group is essential to group and individual success.

The third element, arranging students so they can *interact face to face,* promotes on-task academic interactions between team members. To effectively work toward their common goal, students must be able to talk face to face and look eye to eye at their teammates. Seating individuals close enough so that they can use lowered voices also prevents teams from disrupting one another.

Students cannot be expected to work cooperatively without first being taught leadership, decision-making, trust-building, communication, and conflict-management skills. The fourth element of cooperative learning requires all students to use the specific *interpersonal and small-group skills* necessary to work together. Mastering and using these skills can either be a primary or secondary goal of cooperative learning, but the skills must be present.

It is especially important to note the necessity of this element when teaching students with E/BD. Teachers must determine whether the student *cannot* or *will not* perform the prosocial skill. If the student has not consistently demonstrated the prosocial skill in the past, it could be that he or she cannot perform the skill because he or she has never been taught how. If this is the case, the focus of the cooperative learning groups is to directly teach social skills. On the other hand, if the student has been observed using the skill but will not use it consistently, the focus of the groups should first be on behavior management and then on teaching the social skills. Assigning students who lack social skills to groups with socially competent students will facilitate modeling of prosocial skills. Rewarding the group as a unit when any member demonstrates specific prosocial skills will provide both direct and vicarious rewards, thus increasing the likelihood of their use by all group members.

The fifth element recommended by Johnson and his colleagues is *group processing* which occurs when members evaluate how well they are working together and decide on which behaviors to continue and which to change. Stahl (1994a, b) recommends that teams be given a structured formal debriefing period after they have completed their cooperative learning lessons.

In addition to these five essential elements, other researchers suggest additional components which further the effectiveness of cooperative learning. Stahl (1994a, b) suggests that teachers set clear academic-outcome objectives that can easily be understood by the students. The teacher must also devise ways to get each group member to "buy into" learning the content and skills specified in these objectives. Once the students know what is expected, they must be given a clear and complete set of task-completion directions. Teachers must also ensure that each student comprehends these directions *before* continuing with the lesson.

Students must have access to the "must-learn" information, be allowed sufficient time to learn the content and skills, and be given sufficient opportunities to complete the required information-processing tasks (Stahl, 1994a, b). In an exhaustive review of the research on cooperative learning, Slavin (1983) found that the most successful cooperative learning groups were together for at least 4 weeks. Stahl (1994a, b) also recommends that at least 4 weeks in the same cooperative learning group is required before students begin to reap the affective benefits of cooperative learning such as positive affect, positive attitudes, and social skills.

Beyond the elements that define the content to be learned, Stahl (1994b) and Slavin (1983) claim the composition of the cooperative learning group is important to its success. They suggest that teachers should mix the groups of 3 to 5 students as heterogeneously as possible, first by academic ability and then by gender, race, and ethnic background.

Because the groups are heterogeneous, no student should feel in any way penalized by being assigned to a particular group and each should feel that he or she has an equal opportunity for success (Stahl, 1994a, b, in press). Stahl warns that groups should never be allowed to form on the basis of friendships or cliques.

Finally, Stahl (1994b) recommends that there be "public recognition and rewards for group academic success" (p. 13). Slavin (1983) found that group rewards were essential to the effectiveness of cooperative learning groups.

Guidelines for Implementing Cooperative Learning Groups

1. Before beginning any cooperative learning activity, the teacher must decide on a specific set of outcome objectives that describes exactly what students are to learn. These objectives can be academic, social, or both. Decide what information needs to be processed and how much time will be needed to process that information in the group activity. When this is accomplished, establish a final assessment process based upon criteria that are aligned with objectives.
2. Depending on the "stage" of the cooperative learning group's development, determine the group interaction skills that will be taught. These skills should be directed at developing a prosocial cooperative community and should follow Graves' (1994) guidelines for getting to know and appreciate teammates, setting group goals, becoming more effective teams, helping other teams, or saying goodbye.
3. Develop study guides, worksheets, and answer sheets that will assist students to process the must-learn information. Determine and secure the necessary resources to complete the group activities. This may include securing reference materials, preparing mini-lectures, and arranging for guest speakers.
4. Write the specific directions that the students will need to accomplish the target outcomes.
5. Provide an anticipatory set of target outcomes to get students to "buy into" their accomplishment.
6. Determine the length of time or number of class periods the students will need to accomplish these tasks.
7. At this point, determine a scale for awarding "improvement points" in order that each student has an equal chance of contributing to earning the group reward. Improvement points promote positive interdependence, as well as individual and group accountability, and are based on the amount of improvement individual students make compared to previous scores. Decide how many points will be awarded for each increment of improvement. For example, 10 improvement points can be earned for scoring the same or within 10 points below the base score, 20 points for scoring between 1 and 10 points above the base score, and so on. Perfect papers, regardless of the base score, should be awarded the highest number of improvement points.

An example of improvement points might be: A student, who made a 77 on the previous week's spelling test and an 88 on this week's test, has made an improvement of 11 points, and his team would be awarded 20 improvement points based on this score. If the target objective is social, improvement points can be awarded based on the observed use of the social skill being taught. For example, if the social skill is "encouraging other group members to participate," rewards can be given for teams who tell the teacher a specific incidence of their using that skill during the daily group activity. The following day, they must describe two specific events, and so on.

8. Determine the criteria for the group reward. These can be based on a group total or a group average number of improvement points. There can be different levels of group rewards. For example a "Super Group" may score 50 improvement points while a "Great Group" might score 40 improvement points and a "Good Group" might score 30 improvement points. Each group should receive a reward reflective of their performance.
9. Decide what the group rewards will be. They can be tangible reinforcers or some type of special activity or privilege. Some teachers add bonus points to each team member's test scores based on the group improvement points earned. If there is a reward system already in place within the classroom, it can also be used during the cooperative learning activities.
10. Form maximally heterogeneous groups. Stahl (1995, in press) outlines steps to accomplish this:

    a. Use some relevant and recent academic measure to make a rank-order list of students from highest to lowest score.
    b. Determine how many 3-to-5-member groups will be formed by dividing the total number of students by the group size desired (3, 4, or 5). Assign an alphabetic letter to each group. For example, if there are 28 students and groups of four are desired, there would be seven groups. These groups would be designated by the letters A-G.
    c. Using the academic list from step (a), assign students to groups by simply writing the alphabetic letters along the side of the list beginning at the top until all letters have been used once. Then, starting from the bottom of the list, assign students to groups until a second set of letters are used. Alternate from the top to bottom until all students have been assigned to groups.

d. Examine each group to ensure that students are equally balanced according to ethnic background, race, gender, and level of social competence. Put no more than one child with behavior problems in each group. Place at least one socially competent student in each group containing a student with behavior problems to provide a positive role model. (For extensive details see Stahl, 1995, in press.)

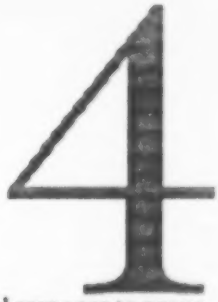
11. Arrange groups so that students can face each member of the group. Provide groups with some community-building activities. Students may want to name their teams or produce some sort of team logo. However, be careful not to allow students to use gang names or logos.
12. Teach specific descriptions of targeted group roles such as leader, recorder, encourager, or noise controller. Lead each student in role-playing examples and nonexamples of what each of these roles "looks like." Kagan (1992) offers a list of group roles and activities to teach each of them. Group roles should be reassigned occasionally to give every student the opportunity to practice each role.
13. Specifically describe the content and skills students are to learn, what they are to do in their groups to learn these, and why the content is important for them. Describe improvement points and the group reward system.
14. Provide students with outcome-aligned content through a variety of instructional techniques. Allow enough time and opportunity for students to process the information in alignment with outcomes. While students are working in groups, circulate around the room stopping at each group to listen and facilitate learning.
15. Occasionally use formative assessment techniques during the lesson to ensure that students are learning the content and skills. Adjust the lesson as necessary.
16. When students have had enough time to learn the material, they should be given individual final exams. This provides the element of individual accountability. These exams should be graded immediately and improvement points determined.
17. Hold a public group rewards ceremony. Because the effectiveness of rewards is contingent on their immediacy, it is important to hold these ceremonies during the next scheduled meeting time, if at all possible.
18. Allow students structured time to reflect on how they worked as a group. For example, students could be asked to list one behavior that helped the group perform well and one behavior that needs to be changed. Students should devise a plan for changing negative behavior.

Summary

Cooperative learning, when properly structured to include all the elements, can be an effective technique to teach and facilitate prosocial behaviors. Through common goals and community-building activities, students will feel that they are important members of the classroom and will learn how to function as part of a group. The skills that students learn in cooperative groups will be useful throughout their lives.

It is important to remember that merely putting students in small groups and telling them to work together will not achieve these goals. Students must be taught how to work cooperatively. This will take a considerable amount of teacher time and effort. As Patterson et al. (1992) have shown, many students have learned only negative means for controlling their social environment and must be taught how to positively interact with others. The success of cooperative learning groups will reflect the amount of time and effort that the teacher spends planning cooperative lessons and group-building activities.

Anger Management



Description

Novaco (1975) defines anger as "a strong emotional response to provocation that not only has identifiable autonomic and central nervous system components, but also cognitive determinants" (p. 3). This definition implies that a person's reaction to a situation is in part determined by the way he or she cognitively interprets and processes it. It is this learned "coping style" that determines both the type and intensity of individual reactions to anger-producing situations.

Because anger is a naturally occurring emotion, it is unrealistic to believe that people can completely eliminate it from their lives. Therefore, the goal of anger management is not to eliminate anger but to teach students the self-regulatory skills necessary for them to become personally competent to deal with anger.

Why Anger Management Works

Research (Patterson, 1986; Patterson et al., 1992) indictates that many aggressive and antisocial children have learned that they can effectively control their environment through aversive means. This control comes by escalating their emotional and behavioral reactions to the point that others either "give in" to them or completely withdraw from confrontation with them. After a great many such "coercive" interactions with peers and adults, the association between anger, aggression, and environmental control is well learned. Antisocial children have never been taught how to appropriately express their feelings of anger and dissatisfaction (Goldstein, 1988; Goldstein & Glick, 1987; Walker et al., 1995).

Novaco (1975) explained that there is a learned association between anger and aggression and that aggression serves as a cathartic release for the tension arising from the situation causing that anger. Michenbaum and Deffenbacher (1988) clarified the reaction to anger arousal as consisting of a heightened physiological arousal paired with thoughts and

images that serve to generate anxiety. The physiological reactions can serve as a discriminative cue to define the onset of anger arousal and signal a need to consciously control these thoughts and images. This personal internal dialogue can be used to control anxiety and is known as cognitive self-control. Novaco's research showed that individuals can be taught a combination of relaxation and cognitive self-control techniques to tame their anger reactions.

The use of cognitive self-control strategies with impulsive preschoolers was investigated by Michenbaum and Goodman (1971). Their findings indicate that impulsive preschoolers used immature, self-stimulatory private speech while nonimpulsive preschoolers used more mature and self-regulatory speech.

Research with aggressive boys showed that they seldom used cognitive self-control techniques in dealing with anger and that, when they did, the techniques were inadequate to control their behavior (Camp, 1977). Michenbaum (1977) characterized students inadequate anger control as "(a) he may not comprehend the nature of the problem or task and thus cannot discover what mediators to produce;... (b) he may have the correct mediators within his repertoire but fails to spontaneously and appropriately produce them;... (c) the mediators which the child produces may not guide his ongoing behavior" (p. 30-31).

Thus, the problem of dealing with anger could be one of comprehension, production, or mediation. The intervention sequence would then focus on teaching children to "(a) comprehend the task, (b) spontaneously produce mediators and strategies, and (c) use such mediators to guide, monitor, and control their performances" (Michenbaum, 1977, p. 31).

Conditions Influencing the Effectiveness of Anger Management

Social interactions and classroom behaviors can be structured to reduce stress in children who may be prone to aggressive anger reactions. Humphrey and Humphrey (1981) suggest five factors to consider when attempting to reduce students' classroom stressors.

First, students who are somehow rewarded for their acts of aggression are more likely to display aggression in future situations. When teachers or peers "give in to" or even withdraw from a situation as a result of an aggressive act, this reinforces aggressive behavior and teaches the stu-

dent that aggression is an effective means for controlling his or her environment. Thus, the connection between aggression and coercive control often is strengthened.

Second, students involved in structured constructive activities are less likely to be aggressive. Walker et al. (1995) point out that classroom structure is instrumental in behavior management. They suggest that teachers arrange the physical environment to reduce distractions and crowding; develop a checklist of classroom operating procedures that include easy-to-understand rules, routines, and schedules; and maintain high expectations of student academic and behavioral performance. If free time is allowed, it should be structured in such a way that students choose from certain activities rather than do whatever they want. These conditions will promote nonaggressive behaviors.

Third, children behave less aggressively when they know and can demonstrate alternative nonaggressive responses to anger-arousing situations. Many children with emotional/behavioral disorders (E/BD) have not learned how to respond in nonaggressive ways and need to be taught specific techniques to do so (Goldstein, 1988; Walker et al., 1995).

Fourth, children often imitate the behavior of the adults around them. If teachers model appropriate prosocial skills in dealing with provocative situations, students will be more likely to use these skills as well.

Finally, structured cooperative acts are not compatible with aggressive behavior. Well-planned cooperative learning activities, where students are taught how to work together and have interdependent goals, inhibit aggressive behaviors.

The personal coping skills and characteristics of the individual can lead to decreased likelihood of anger arousal. Novaco (1975) identified nine such skills:

- The ability to focus on the problem, rather than focusing on the feelings of threat that accompany the problem.
- High self-esteem.
- Knowledge and use of non-antagonistic response skills.
- Self-awareness of personal anger-arousal signals.
- The ability to use personal arousal signals to cue the use of non-antagonistic coping strategies.
- Perceived control over the situation.

- Self-instruction techniques to effectively deal with each stage of the provocation.
- Congratulatory self-statements to reinforce effective coping strategies and enhance self-esteem.
- Use of relaxation techniques to control tension.

Humphrey and Humphrey (1981) added that children who are hungry, of lower intelligence, or feel crowded also show less ability to control their anger.

Guidelines for Implementing Anger Management

1. *Convince students of their need to change their anger-management style.*
   a. Tell students that anger is an emotion common to most people. Although it can be reduced, it is not likely to be eliminated. Explain that the goal of anger management should be personal competence in dealing with and managing situations that arouse anger.
   b. Give examples of situations likely to provoke anger and discuss both appropriate and inappropriate responses to these situations. Discuss the concept that using aversive and aggressive means to solve problems generally produces negative consequences while using acceptable means often produces positive consequences.
   c. Have students describe situations when they dealt with anger appropriately and inappropriately. Teachers, counselors, school administrators, parents, and other significant adults or peers can be invited to share appropriate anger-control techniques that they use.
2. *Make students aware of the personal signals that indicate increased anger arousal.*
   a. Ask students to recall times when they were angry. Have them describe their physiological reactions to these situations.
   b. Have students draw pictures representing themselves when they are angry. Students should be encouraged to describe their pictures by explaining their arousal signals.
   c. Ask students to keep an anger diary. Goldstein and Rosenbaum (1982) recommend using index cards to have students record situations that provoked their anger, a rating of how angry they felt (with 0 being completely relaxed and 10 being as angry as

they have ever been), their reaction, a rating of how angry they were after their reaction, and finally a self-evaluation of the situation.

3. *Teach students self-talk techniques.* Michenbaum and Goodman (1971) suggest the following strategies for promoting self-talk:
   a. Demonstrate self-talk by "thinking aloud" when solving problems. Verbally express the thinking process involved. Have students practice this technique through role-playing situations that cause them to become angry. When situations occur in the classroom that arouse anger, stop and model appropriate problem-solving steps by thinking aloud through self-talk. This technique can also be generalized and practiced in other situations or content areas. For example, think aloud the steps to divide fractions, solve word problems, alphabetize a spelling list, or determine which materials are needed to complete a project.
   b. Use the same process, but reduce the volume of self-talk to a whisper.
   c. Discontinue verbalizations and replace them with exaggerated body language that indicates thinking. For example, students might be instructed to look up, strain their face as though they were concentrating, or put their index finger to your temple.
   d. Goldstein and Rosenbaum (1982) report that feelings of worthlessness and insecurity often result in negative self-statements. Students should be taught to take control of the situation and develop the skills necessary to solve problems without becoming angry. Ask students to recall anger-producing situations in their past. Ask them to recall and record the "self-statements" or what they were thinking during these situations. Examine the self-statements to determine whether they are negative or positive. Negative self-statements convey feeling of victimization and helplessness while positive self-statements convey that students are in control of the situation and have the skills necessary to solve the problem without becoming angry. Students should be helped to change the words of self-talk from negative statements to positive statements.

4. *Teach problem-solving skills.* Each person has the responsibility to control his or her own anger. Nobody can "make" someone behave in a particular way. Therefore, it is important to learn how to solve one's own problems. Goldstein (1988) recommends the implementation of several effective problem-solving steps for dealing with anger:

a. Define the problem in concrete terms. Do not take problems personally. Problems and disagreements should be viewed as situations to be solved rather than "battles" to be won. At this point, if students are upset, they must decide if they should temporarily leave the situation and calm down or if they should stay and solve the problem.

b. Identify as many alternate solutions to the anger-arousing problem as possible.

c. Choose the best solution by thinking about the consequences of each solution.

d. Implement the best solution.

e. Evaluate the effectiveness of that solution. Was it the best? Would a different solution have been better? How might you change the solution next time?

f. Have students keep a "problem log." A problem log is a written (or pictorial) documentation of the problem-solving process. This can be reviewed periodically to reinforce or change problem-solving behaviors.

5. *Teach relaxation skills.* Three approaches to teaching students to relax are diaphragmatic breathing, progressive relaxation, and physical exercise (Goldstein, 1988). These skills might be practiced during particularly stressful times throughout the day or following recess or physical education classes.

   a. *Diaphragmatic Breathing:* When people become upset their breathing becomes quick and choppy. Teach children that taking slow (about 5 seconds for each inhale and each exhale), deep, rhythmic, relaxed breaths from the diaphragm will promote relaxation and reduce the heart rate. To practice this technique, have students count their heart rate, perform some strenuous activity and then count their heart rate again, use the breathing technique and count their heart rate one final time, and then compare the results.

   b. *Progressive Relaxation:* Humphrey and Humphrey (1981) explain that children need to have a kinesthetic awareness of tonus, or their normal degree of muscle contraction, and be able to compare the difference between tense and normal muscle contractions. By practicing progressive relaxation, students will begin to recognize tense muscles as a signal or cue that they are becoming angry and, thus, should use non-antagonistic problem-solving skills.

Learning progressive relaxation procedures requires 20 to 30 minutes of daily practice (Humphrey & Humphrey, 1981). Students should be taught to tense and relax each muscle group. (For more detailed information see Goldstein, 1988; Goldstein & Rosenbaum, 1982.) With younger children, the use of imagery is strongly suggested. Koeppen (1974) suggests using imagery and repeating each stage of the following sequence three times:

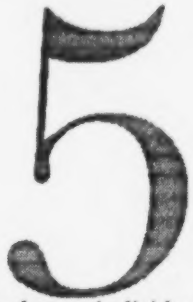
- *Hands and Arms:* Pretend that you are making lemonade with lemon halves. Hold a lemon half in each hand and squeeze as much juice as you can from the lemons. At the end of the exercise, drop the lemons and relax the hands.
- *Arms and Shoulders:* Pretend that you are a big lazy cat lying in the sunshine. Stretch your arms and shoulders up as high as you can. After three times, drop your arms to your sides.
- *Shoulders and Neck*: Now you are a turtle sitting on a river's edge. Pull your head out of your shell as far as you can to see if there is danger ahead. Pretend you see something that frightens you and pull your head back into your shell. Finally, relax your neck and shoulders.
- *Jaw:* Pretend that you have a great big jawbreaker in your mouth and bite down as hard as you can to break it. After the third attempt, you have broken through to the center and can now relax and enjoy the chocolate filling.
- *Face and Neck:* Your hands are full when a fly comes and lands on your nose. Without using your hands, wrinkle your face and try to get the fly to fly away. The fly flies away and returns two more times.
- *Stomach:* You are lying in the grass when a baby elephant comes walking by. You think he is going to step right on your stomach so you tighten your stomach muscles as tight as you can so he doesn't squish you. The elephant returns two more times before moving on.
- *Stomach II:* Pretend that you need to get through a narrow door and suck in your stomach and stretch up to make yourself as narrow as possible. Try to touch your backbone with your stomach. After the third attempt, you make it through the door.
- *Legs and Feet:* You are barefoot in a warm mud puddle. Squish the mud between your toes. Relax for awhile and keep all parts of your body as limp as possible. Think about how your muscles feel (Koeppen, 1974).

c. *Physical Exercise*: Aggression and stress can often be released in socially acceptable ways through physical exercise (Humphrey & Humphrey, 1981). Both planned and spontaneous activities can be used to reduce ongoing or incidental stressors. Train students to recognize the physical signs that they are experiencing stress and then engage in some type of physical activity to help reduce stress.

Summary

Students can be taught specific strategies such as positive self-talk, problem-solving techniques, and relaxation to aid in the recognition and reduction of stress and anger. Through prolonged use of these techniques students can become competent in dealing appropriately with situations that arouse their anger. Teachers should combine direct instruction of appropriate stress- and anger-control techniques with social reinforcement to encourage their continued use when students become angry.

Self-Control Strategies



Description

Self-control refers to a set of behaviors and strategies that an individual undertakes to achieve self-selected outcomes (Kazdin, 1994). Self-control strategies are specific procedures designed to modify or maintain one's own behavior. With these procedures, students learn patterns of behavior that enable them to be independent, self-reliant, and responsible for their own behavior. Self-control training involves teaching students to increase awareness of their own behavior and establish and manage the contingencies that influence their behavior, as well as self-monitor, self-evaluate, and self-reinforce their own behavior.

Self-control involves three sets of skills: self-monitoring, self-evaluation, and self-reinforcement. *Self-monitoring* refers to self-observing and self-recording one's own specific academic and social behaviors. This component of self-control requires students to accurately observe and record their own behavior. Self-monitoring procedures have widespread applicability as both assessment procedures and interventions. As an assessment procedure, self-monitoring allows students to gather information regarding their own specific target behaviors. Information gathered through self-monitoring assists in identifying behaviors to change, analyzing the antecedents and consequences of these behaviors, and specifically defining target behaviors. Once the student defines the target behavior, self-monitoring can be continued to evaluate the effects of specific interventions on the behavior (Shapiro & Cole, 1992).

In addition, self-monitoring has also been found to be effective as a treatment technique for reducing disruptive behaviors as well as increasing on-task behaviors, academic productivity, and social skills in the classroom. The act of systematically observing and recording one's own behavior often changes that behavior. Hughes and Hendrickson (1987) demonstrated the usefulness of self-monitoring in increasing on-task behavior of elementary-grade students who were at risk for social maladjustment and academic failure. Students were taught to self-monitor their on-task behavior during independent seatwork. Results demonstrated a strong reactive effect for students tracking their own behavior.

Although a number of studies have documented positive reactive effects of self-monitoring, the reasons for these effects are unclear (Reid, 1993). Does information regarding the target behavior provide sufficient feedback to the student to change the behavior? Does recording of the target behavior itself take on reinforcing or punishing properties to increase or decrease behavior? Although researchers are unable to explain precisely why self-monitoring alone may change behavior, the technique has been used successfully with students of all ages and disabilities (DiGangi, Maag, & Rutherford, 1991).

Self-evaluation refers to the process where students compare their behavior to a self- or externally determined standard and render a judgment regarding the quality and acceptability of the behavior (Hughes, Ruhl, & Misra, 1989). In self-evaluation, students compare their performance to three types of standards. First, they can compare their current behavior to their baseline behavior rate or the level of their behavior before they began to monitor their own behavior. For example, John decided to read more pages of the newspaper in the coming week. When he compared his reading rate to that of the baseline, he discovered that he read 20 more pages a week than he had before. Compared to the standard of his baseline number of pages read, his reading rate had improved significantly.

Second, students can compare their behavior to that of other students in class. The standard here is the class average or typical level for the target behavior. For example, Ellen completed five assignments a week, whereas everyone else in class completed only three assignments. Finally, students can compare their behavior to specific teacher-designated standards for that behavior. For example, Ms. Thomas provides a response-cost contingency for any student who exceeds three talk-outs per day. Steven is able to compare his behavior to this standard for the class. The ability to self-evaluate to different standards encourages students to monitor and be aware of the quality and acceptability of their behavior.

Self-reinforcement refers to the process where students select and administer positive consequences to themselves contingent upon their own behavior. Students are involved in two phases during self-reinforcement: the planning phase and the implementation phase. During the planning phase, students self-select specific reinforcer(s) and establish the criteria and response requirements for reinforcement. In the implementation phase, the student actually self-administers reinforcement for achieving an established criterion or standard of the target behavior (Kazdin, 1994).

Teachers can implement the three skills of self-control singly or in combination. Usually these skills are used together as part of a multicomponent self-management strategy.

Why Self-Control Strategies Work

Most authorities agree that the ultimate goal of education is to increase students' independence, which is accomplished only when students assume responsibility for their own behavior. In contrast to teacher-mediated interventions such as social reinforcement, token reinforcement, modeling, and behavioral contracting, self-control strategies enable students to manage their own academic and social behaviors in a variety of environments. Self-control extends behavior management (a) to those events or settings that are not easily observed such as conversation skills on the playground and (b) to covert behaviors that are not observable such as unpleasant thoughts (Kazdin, 1994). Research indicates that students perform better when they are actively involved in establishing the contingencies for their behavior change. The ability to self-monitor, self-evaluate, and self-reinforce one's own behavior significantly alters that behavior.

In addition, self-control serves as a powerful generalization tool. Teachers of students with emotional/behavioral disorders (E/BD) often view self-control as an important transition strategy for integrating these students into less restrictive classroom environments (Laycock & Tonelson, 1985). Because students under self-control contingencies are not dependent on the presence of a special education teacher or being in a special education setting to perform the desired behaviors, behavior change is more effectively generalized to mainstream settings.

Self-control strategies are easily applied to a variety of academic and nonacademic settings and behaviors. For example, a student who has learned to self-monitor her reading rate at school can keep track of her reading rate at home using the same self-monitoring techniques. Although students as young as 5 years can learn to evaluate and reinforce their own behavior (Gelfand, Jenson, & Drew, 1982), it is recommended that these strategies be used only after children are able to accurately observe and record the occurrence of their behavior over time. Teachers can encourage students to use a self-monitoring, self-evaluation, and self-reward system to promote generalization of appropriate classroom behaviors from special education settings to regular classroom settings.

Conditions Influencing the Effectiveness of Self-Control

Self-control strategies are most successful with students who are developmentally and cognitively able to track their own behavior as well as those who are motivated to use these procedures. Self-control allows the student to move from teacher-mediated interventions to self-mediated interventions in a variety of natural settings (anywhere and anytime). In teaching self-control, it is essential that target behaviors are initially controlled by teacher-managed contingencies, before developing student-managed contingencies. If a student does not have a particular behavior in his or her repertoire, it is imperative to first teach that behavior before teaching self-control strategies. Although all teacher-managed classroom behaviors cannot be replaced by student-managed behaviors, the goal of teaching self-control is to enable the student to be more independent. Teachers are encouraged to teach students self-control strategies by using modeling, social reinforcement, token reinforcement, behavioral contracting, and other teacher-mediated behavioral approaches.

Despite the large number of self-control studies (Hughes et al., 1989; Nelson, Smith, Young, & Dodd, 1991), little is known about which components of self-control are most effective in producing long-term behavioral change. Although applicability of these procedures with students demonstrating mild to severe E/BD across various types of academic and social behaviors has been examined, the generality and durability of behavior change and the replicability of these procedures need to be further ascertained (Shapiro & Cole, 1994). Many students with E/BD can be taught to use self-control strategies efficiently through active teacher support and guidance. The success of these procedures depends upon teacher support, student training in using self-control skills, and powerful reinforcement contingencies for using these skills. Self-control strategies serve as tools for facilitating students' independent functioning.

Guidelines for Implementing Self-Control Strategies

Drawing from the accumulated literature on teaching self-control strategies, several guidelines for such teaching are offered.

Define the Target Behavior

The first step in implementing a self-control strategy is to identify the target behavior. Involve the student in identifying and defining the desired behavior and ensure that the behavior is developmentally valid. Be aware that very young or immature students may not benefit from these strategies. Focus on appropriate behaviors to increase rather than on negative behaviors to decrease. Identify behaviors that are meaningful and beneficial to the target student. Define the target behavior in operational terms so that the student clearly understands which behavior is to be self-controlled. Provide examples and nonexamples of the behavior and model, and role-play the behaviors until the student can accurately identify when they occur. Ask students to redefine the target behavior in their own words.

Provide a Rationale for Self-Control

Explain the purpose for developing self-control to the target student. Provide the student with the rationale and benefits of being able to record, evaluate, and reinforce one's own behavior. Explain how this procedure provides concrete feedback regarding target behaviors and leads to student independence.

Develop a Self-Control System

Develop or adapt an appropriate and easy-to-use system of self-control. Provide the student with self-recording tools such as counters, recording sheets, and other devices to monitor his or her behavior. With self-monitoring, identify the type of data (frequency, rate) collection and recording procedure to be used by the student. Although self-monitoring has been found to be effective in both individualized and group settings, it is imperative that teachers evaluate whether the setting is appropriate for a particular type of observation and recording procedure. A monitoring procedure that draws undue peer attention to the student may be counterproductive. With self-evaluation, the teacher needs to assist students in determining the standard by which they will evaluate the behaviors they are monitoring. With self-reinforcement, it is important to solicit student input into selecting reinforcer(s) and establishing the criterion for reinforcement. Students should be involved in establishing contingencies for both the accuracy of their self-monitoring and the improvement in the target behavior.

Provide Direct Instruction

Teachers are encouraged to be enthusiastic and positive while teaching self-control strategies. Provide direct instruction on how to use the self-control system. Provide sufficient modeling, practice, and feedback for effective self-monitoring, self-evaluation, and self-reinforcement of behavior. Train students to track their behavior and compare their behavior to self-determined or externally determined standards. Compare and match student evaluations of behavioral performance to teacher evaluations of these behaviors. Provide a rationale for discrepant recordings and evaluations and show the student how to reinforce positive and accurate self-evaluations.

Monitor Accuracy

Check the student's self-recorded data for accuracy. Discuss differences in student-observed and teacher-observed behaviors. When a student demonstrates a high level of accuracy in recording the target behavior, he or she may then engage in self-monitoring independently. Some teachers prefer to give prompts to the student to use the monitoring system and check for the accuracy of the student's record of the target behavior before the student starts self-monitoring independently. Continue to conduct reliability checks by randomly matching the student record with the teacher record.

Fade Overt Procedures

After determining that the student can accurately observe, record, evaluate, and reinforce his or her own behavior, gradually withdraw the overt self-control procedures and fade the matching requirements. Overt self-control procedures (e.g., counting devices, recording sheets) should be used temporarily until the student internalizes the self-control process. A gradual rather than abrupt withdrawal of overt procedures helps the student to maintain the behavior change.

Program for Generalization

Once the student learns to use self-control independently with one target behavior, other behaviors may be added using the same system. Do not expect that students will extemporaneously expand the system to other behaviors or settings at first. To produce wide-ranging effects, systematic programming for generalization is essential. Teach students how to use the same monitoring system with different behaviors. Provide students with sufficient practice in self-control strategies so that

they automatically use these strategies. This automaticity refers to the student's ability to maintain accuracy in self-recording, self-evaluation, and self-reinforcement in varying conditions. Provide students with a variety of contrived or natural settings where they can practice new self-control strategies. Once the student develops automaticity in using these strategies, he or she can then use them in many different situations. Involve the whole class in learning and using self-control strategies. Encourage students to use these strategies in changing any aspect of their academic or social behavior.

Summary

Self-control strategies enable students to alter many aspects of their own behavior. Students can be trained to be more self-reliant and responsible for their own behavior by developing the skills of self-monitoring, self-evaluation, and self-reinforcement. Research and experience support the use of these techniques with students with E/BD (Hughes et al., 1989; Nelson et al., 1991). Teachers should provide students with adequate support and training in using self-control strategies, as well as reinforcement for desired behavior change as a result of using these self-management strategies. Teachers are encouraged to use these strategies as a complement to teacher-mediated behavior management approaches in the classroom.

Conclusion

An important factor in effective classroom behavior management is teaching of alternative or replacement behaviors to students who exhibit emotional/behavioral disorders (E/BD). Teaching replacement skills allows for teachers to focus on teaching positive behaviors rather than merely controlling negative behaviors. These skills allow students to build positive relationships with their teachers and their peers and to become responsible for controlling their own behavior. When students build positive relationships and begin to take responsibility for their behavior, negative classroom behaviors and discipline problems decrease.

Teachers are encouraged to teach alternative behaviors that contribute to the development of prosocial repertoires for students with E/BD. Many students with E/BD lack the social skills, cooperative learning skills, anger-control techniques, and self-control strategies to succeed in the classroom or in society in general. Therefore, social skills instruction should be included as an essential curriculum component for these students. That is, teachers need to teach students the social skills necessary for effective social functioning.

In addition, students need to be provided with a classroom structure that promotes participation in cooperative groups. Cooperative learning, when systematically structured, can be an effective technique for teaching and facilitating students' academic and prosocial behaviors.

Specific techniques for reducing anger assist students to become competent in dealing with situations that arouse anger. Students who learn to recognize stressors in their environment and use positive self-talk, problem-solving techniques, and relaxation are often able to reduce their anger. Finally, students should be taught behaviors and strategies that enable them to be independent, self-reliant, and responsible for their own behavior. Although teacher management of student behavior cannot always be replaced by student self-management of these behaviors, the ultimate goal of self-control is to enable students to be more responsible for their own behavior.

7

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